

## 10 Vibrations in diatomic molecules

### 10.1 Separation of internal and center of mass motion

In this section we will study how to apply the harmonic oscillator model to a diatomic molecule. The first aspect we have to study is how to connect the Hamiltonian of a diatomic molecule to that of the harmonic oscillator. For a diatomic molecule the Hamiltonian will depend on the coordinate of atom 1 ( $x_1$ ) and atom 2 ( $x_2$ ), as well as, their corresponding masses  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ . The kinetic energy is

$$\hat{T} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2}, \quad (1)$$

while the potential is

$$\hat{V} = \frac{1}{2}k(x_2 - x_1 - r_e)^2, \quad (2)$$

where we assumed that the potential is  $(x_2 - x_1 - r_e)^2$  is the square of the distance of the two atoms. This potential is zero at the equilibrium bond distance, when  $x_2 - x_1 = r_e$ , otherwise it is positive. Now we will introduce two new variables, the bond distance ( $r$ ) and the center of mass ( $R$ ), defined as

$$r = x_2 - x_1 \quad (3)$$

$$R = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{m_1 + m_2} = \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{M}, \quad (4)$$

where  $M = m_1 + m_2$  is the total mass.

In this new system of coordinates the potential simplifies to

$$\hat{V} = \frac{1}{2}k(x_2 - x_1 - r_e)^2 = \frac{1}{2}k(r - r_e)^2, \quad (5)$$

Applying the chain rule we express the derivatives in  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  as derivatives in  $r$  and  $R$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial r}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial}{\partial R}, \quad (6)$$

where

$$\frac{\partial r}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} (x_2 - x_1) = -1, \quad (7)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_1} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left( \frac{m_1 x_1 + m_2 x_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) = \frac{m_1}{M}. \quad (8)$$

So we can write

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{m_1}{M} \frac{\partial}{\partial R}, \quad (9)$$

and the second derivative is

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_1^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \left( \frac{m_1}{M} \right)^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} - \frac{2m_1}{M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R \partial r}. \quad (10)$$

Repeating the same for  $x_2$  we get

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_2^2} = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \left( \frac{m_2}{M} \right)^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} + \frac{2m_2}{M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R \partial r}. \quad (11)$$

Plugging these two derivatives in the kinetic energy operator we get

$$\hat{T} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \left(\frac{m_1}{M}\right)^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} - \frac{2m_1}{M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R \partial r} \right] \quad (12)$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \left[ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \left(\frac{m_2}{M}\right)^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} + \frac{2m_2}{M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R \partial r} \right] \quad (13)$$

$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} \left( \frac{m_1}{M^2} + \frac{m_2}{M^2} \right) - \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} \left( \frac{1}{m_1} + \frac{1}{m_2} \right) \quad (14)$$

$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2}. \quad (15)$$

The quantity  $\mu$  is called the **reduced mass**

$$\mu = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{m_1} + \frac{1}{m_2}} = \frac{m_1 + m_2}{m_1 m_2}. \quad (16)$$

Putting all together we can write the Hamiltonian as

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{2} k(r - r_e)^2 = \hat{H}_{\text{CM}} + \hat{H}_{\text{HO}}, \quad (17)$$

which we separated as a center-of-mass Hamiltonian (CM) and a harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian (HO),

$$\hat{H}_{\text{CM}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial R^2}, \quad (18)$$

and

$$\hat{H}_{\text{HO}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{2} k(r - r_e)^2. \quad (19)$$

Recall that the center-of-mass Hamiltonian is the same as that for a particle in a box. So we can solve this problem for a particle in a box of dimension  $L$  much larger than the molecule bond length.

Note that the Hamiltonian can be written as a sum of two separate terms that act on different coordinates. The center-of-mass Hamiltonian ( $\hat{H}_{\text{CM}}$ ) depends only on  $R$ , while the harmonic oscillator Hamiltonian ( $\hat{H}_{\text{HO}}$ ) acts only on  $r$ . In this case we say that the Hamiltonian is **separable**, and the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions are related to those of the two separate Hamiltonians.<sup>1</sup> The eigenvalues are the sum of the eigenvalues for a particle in a box (of mass  $M$  and length  $L$ ) and a harmonic oscillator (with  $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$ )

$$E_{n,v} = E_n^{\text{CM}} + E_v^{\text{HO}} = \frac{h^2 n^2}{8ML^2} + \hbar\omega \left( v + \frac{1}{2} \right) \quad (20)$$

The eigenfunctions are instead given by

$$\psi(R, r) = \psi_n^{\text{PIB}}(R) \psi_v^{\text{HO}}(r), \quad (21)$$

where  $\psi_n^{\text{PIB}}(R)$  and  $\psi_v^{\text{HO}}(r)$  are the eigenfunctions for a particle in a box and a harmonic oscillator, respectively.

## 10.2 Selection rule and vibrational spectra

If we are interested in the vibrational spectroscopy of diatomic molecules we can focus exclusively on the  $v$  dependence of the energy.

Not all transitions between the energy levels of the harmonic oscillator are allowed. The **selection rule**<sup>2</sup> for a harmonic oscillator tells us that the only allowed transitions are those

<sup>1</sup>In general, if the Hamiltonian splits into two parts  $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_A + \hat{H}_B$ , where  $\hat{H}_A$  and  $\hat{H}_B$  act on different variables  $x$  and  $y$ , then the eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of  $\hat{H}$  are  $E = E_A + E_B$  and  $\psi(x, y) = \psi_A(x) \psi_B(y)$ , where  $\hat{H}_A \psi_A(x) = E_A \psi_A(x)$  and  $\hat{H}_B \psi_B(y) = E_B \psi_B(y)$ .

<sup>2</sup>Selection rules can be justified with quantum mechanics, but this subject is a bit advanced and will be covered later

that satisfy

$$\Delta v = \pm 1. \quad (22)$$

Absorption of a photon can promote a harmonic oscillator from the level  $v$  to  $v + 1$ . The energy of the photon corresponding to this transition is given by the energy difference of these two levels

$$\Delta E_v = E_{v+1} - E_v = \hbar\omega \left( v + 1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \hbar\omega \left( v + \frac{1}{2} \right) = \hbar\omega, \quad (23)$$

where

$$\omega = \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}. \quad (24)$$

Note that this difference is independent of  $v$ , so all transitions of a harmonic oscillator occur at the same frequency.

#### ■ Example 10.1 (Vibrations of diatomics).

The force constant of  $\text{H}^{127}\text{I}$  is  $k = 291 \text{ N m}^{-1}$ . Calculate the vibrational frequency of  $\text{H}^{127}\text{I}$  in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

Solution: The energy difference between two level of the harmonic oscillator is

$$E = \hbar\omega = \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}, \quad (25)$$

and the wave numbers corresponding to this transition are

$$\tilde{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{\nu}{c} = \frac{E}{hc} = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}. \quad (26)$$

The reduced mass of  $\text{H}^{127}\text{I}$  is

$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} = \frac{1.007825 \times 126.904468}{1.007825 + 126.904468} \text{ kg} = 1.660539040 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} = 1.66035 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg} \quad (27)$$

Plugging the number in we get

$$\tilde{\nu} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 299\,792\,458 \text{ m s}^{-1}} \sqrt{\frac{291 \text{ N m}^{-1}}{1.66035 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}}} = 222\,252 \text{ m}^{-1} = 2222.52 \text{ cm}^{-1} \quad (28)$$

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### 10.3 The Morse potential

A convenient approximation to the potential of a diatomic molecule is the Morse potential

$$V(r) = D \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} \right]^2. \quad (29)$$

This potential contains two parameters. The first one,  $D$ , is the dissociation energy of the molecule, while  $r_e$  is the equilibrium bond distance. Both  $D$  and  $\beta$  are assumed to be positive.

To find the equilibrium geometry for the Morse potential we take the first derivative and set it to zero

$$\frac{dV(r)}{dr} = 2D \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} \right] \frac{d}{dr} \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} \right] = 2D\beta \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} \right] e^{-\beta(r-r_e)}. \quad (30)$$

Setting the first derivative to zero requires solving the following equation

$$2D\beta \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} \right] e^{-\beta(r-r_e)} = 0 \quad (31)$$

This expression is zero when  $r = r_e$ . To see this substitute  $r$  with  $r_e$  in the term in square brackets

$$1 - e^{-\beta(r_e - r_e)} = 1 - e^0 = 1 - 1 = 0. \quad (32)$$

Once we know the equilibrium bond distance we can compute the dissociation energy ( $D_e$ ) of the Morse potential. This quantity is defined as

$$D_e = V(\infty) - V(r_e). \quad (33)$$

The first term is equal to

$$V(\infty) = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} D \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right]^2 = D, \quad (34)$$

while the second one is equal to

$$V(r_e) = D \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r_e - r_e)} \right]^2 = 0. \quad (35)$$

So we find that for the Morse potential the dissociation energy is equal to the constant  $D$

$$D_e = D. \quad (36)$$

The second derivative of the Morse potential is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^2V(r)}{dr^2} &= 2D\beta \frac{d}{dr} \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right] e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \\ &= 2D\beta \left[ \beta e^{-2\beta(r - r_e)} - \beta \left[ 1 - e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right] e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right] \\ &= 2D\beta^2 \left[ 2e^{-2\beta(r - r_e)} - e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

The force constant for the Morse potential is the second derivative evaluated at the equilibrium bond distance,  $r = r_e$

$$k = \left. \frac{d^2V(r)}{dr^2} \right|_{r=r_e} = 2D\beta^2. \quad (38)$$